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ABSTRACT

Research reviews are presented on the definition, scope, and nature of global education. Specifically, reviews focus on developmental research, which suggests that a certain age span is appropriate for teaching awareness of other nations, and environmental research, which identifies influences on the student in the classroom environment. In addition, global education is viewed within the broader framework of the literature on political socialization. Research shows and educational theories suggest that children between the ages of 7 and 12 years are particularly open to learning about others and to developing patriotism without chauvinism. Evaluations of programs and innovative curricula suggest that the most effective teaching approach is an analysis of cultural differences within the context of universal characteristics and needs of humankind. An organized, sequential effort which engages the student in experiential learning is most effective. Literature on political socialization identifies parental and media influences as factors which affect attempts to change attitudes through curriculum. Classroom climate, teacher credibility, and cooperative learning strategies appear to be the most important factors in developing positive attitudes. Although sufficient rationale for global education exists, the need to assess the impact of implemented programs is critical. (KC)

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THE DEVELOPING FIELD OF GLOBAL EDUCATION:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

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Introduction

Change: we acknowledge it or ignore it; advocate it or resist it; promote it or fear it at one time or another. Yet, today, more than ever, we must deal with it. Many of the changes that we are facing on a daily basis are linked to cross-cultural interaction within our local, state, national, and world communities. George Bonham, in a special issue of Change magazine, "Educating for the World View," asserts the following:

We live in a world that is increasingly anarchical, increasingly unpredictable, and increasingly a world not of American choosing or of America's imagination. We may now find ourselves at one of the great disjunctures of our national history. Event after event brings home the fact that we understand each less and less and clamor more and more for simple answers. The role that education must play in the years ahead is inexorable and plain to see. The world has unalterably changed, and so must American Education.¹

Every day, newspapers are filled with news items which underscore global political, economic, environmental, and human rights problems. It is not a difficult task to identify very specific events which occur in this country that

¹ George W. Bonham (ed.), "Educating for the World View," Change, Vol. 12 (May-June, 1980), vii-86.

directly affect others outside the United States. Nor is it difficult to identify events in other countries which directly affect United States' citizens. The exodus of political refugees from conflict-ridden countries is but one that can be mentioned.

Not only are these reciprocal effects of change increasing, but they are increasing at an exponential rate.² Today's educational institutions and curriculum on the whole have not yet adapted to meet the challenge of this new global age. Many educational leaders have come to believe it is essential that we find the means to convey the importance of a global perspective to our citizens and to teach them the skills, knowledge and attitudes to function effectively in the world of rapidly-increasing interdependence.³ Former Secretary of Education, Shirley Hufstedler succinctly delineates the issue:

...all of us need to learn a good deal about the winds of change that are blowing with such force across the globe... We cannot hope to understand...twentieth-century dilemmas with nineteenth-century curricula. Our educators are going to have to take a hard new look at what they are teaching--and what they are not teaching--about the world.⁴

² Lee Anderson, "The Century of the J-Curve," Our World, Vol. 29 (November, 1977), 13-17.

³ Harlan Cleveland, "Forward to Basics, Education as Wide as the World," Change, Vol. 12 (May-June, 1980), 18-22.

⁴ Shirley M. Hufstedler, "A World in Transition," Change, Vol. 12 (May-June, 1980), 8-9.

According to the Report to the President From the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, Strength Through Wisdom, A Critique of U.S. Capability, also known as the Perkins Commission Report, the majority of our pre-collegiate school systems, colleges and universities are not recognizing the need for their students to develop competencies to live in this ever-shrinking world. The concern for the "basics" of reading, writing, and mathematics has dominated the curricular focus for many years. The Perkins Report emphasizes that educators must recognize the new "basic" of understanding our global interrelatedness. It furthermore indicates that we, as a nation, can no longer afford to be stuck in the outmoded curriculum approaches of the past.⁵

These perspectives epitomize the polemics surrounding the developing field of global education, a field which is broadly conceived by Anderson, Hanvey, and others as citizenship education in a newly-emerging world paradigm.⁶

⁵ James A. Perkins, "Strength Through Wisdom, A Critique of U.S. Capability," A Report to the President from the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979), 4-39.

⁶ Lee F. Anderson, "Some Propositions About the Nature of Global Education" (Washington, D.C.: Leadership Conference for Title VI NDIA Section 603, 1979), pp. 1-5. (Mimeographed.); Robert G. Hanvey, An Attainable Global Perspective (New York: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 1979).

The arguments are substantiated by considerable research on what U.S. students know about the world. Several major studies indicate that students have critical misconceptions about other nations, people, and global issues. In addition, their attitudes in general indicate an ethnocentrism and chauvinism that are the antithesis of a global perspective.⁷ An outcome of one such study suggests grave implications for any effort to globalize the curriculum: education majors scored the lowest in a national survey on what college students know about the world.⁸

The major problems in the field appear to be ones of definition; of identifying the existing empirical field research, including the effect of environmental factors which impact on the success of student outcomes; of identifying strategies for implementing programs based on learning theory; and of identifying effective sequencing of learning and curricular fit. This review will offer a perspective of the ideological definition issue for the purpose of more

⁷ T. Barrows, "Attitudes and Perceptions," in What College Students Know About their World (New Rochelle, N.Y.: Change Magazine Press, 1981); L. Pike and T. Barrows, Other Nation, Other Peoples (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979); J. Torney, et al, Civic Education in Ten Countries: An Empirical Study (New York: John Wiley, 1975).

⁸ T. Barrows, *Ibid.*

clearly delineating the scope and nature of global education; present the existing research findings related to the developmental aspects of a global perspective and to the environmental factors impinging upon curricula implementation. In addition, these aspects of global education will be viewed within the broader framework of the literature on political socialization.

The Problem of Definition

Global education is an emerging field about which many educators, at all levels, are either unaware or without adequate understanding.⁹ The major problem in this developing field is not in finding support or advocates;¹⁰ it is rather one of definition and conceptualization and of the implementation of effective programs based on this conceptualization. The issue of definition continues to baffle both the proponents of the field and the uninitiated alike and surfaces over and over again in a survey of the related literature. Even the designation of the field is disputed: some continue to use the traditionally and generally more limited term of "international education" with or without recognizing the discrepancy with what others call "global

⁹ Perkins, Op Cit.

¹⁰ Even the Council for Basic Education endorses the infusion notion of global education as being basically sound. "Global Education Revisited," Basic Education 26 (Apr. 1982).

education" and still others refer to as education for a "global perspective."¹¹

This choice of designation is a significant one because, in fact, it is the point of divergence in defining the field and therefore in planning curriculum, programs and teacher inservice training. Both international education and global education imply a specifically delineated structured discipline typically assigned to the social studies. International education is based on the study of various geographical and cultural areas of the world; global education incorporates this content, but views world areas as parts of larger, interacting, interdependent systems expressed and studied through global issues. A global perspectives approach, on the other hand, is based not on implementing new courses or extensively redesigning curricular content, but on the infusion and integration into the curriculum at all levels of an awareness of emerging global concepts such as those of change, conflict, communication, and interdependence.¹² Furthermore, global perspectives implies dealing with affective content and stresses student acquisition of competencies which incorporate essential knowledge,

¹¹ David C. King, "Global Education," ASCD Curriculum Update, October, 1980.

¹² David C. King, Margaret S. Branson and Larry E. Condon, "Education for a World in Change," Intercom 84/85 (Nov. 1976).

skills, and attitudes.¹³ According to Becker, in spite of the attention of many eminent scholars to the effort of developing a coherent and uniform view of global education, such definition has not emerged. Becker's own view is that what is needed is not so much to broaden knowledge, but to reinterpret it through an understanding of global systems.¹⁴ Hanvey, among other leading conceptualizers in the field, supports this view and asserts that interdependence is probably the most essential and basic concept within the structure of global education. He emphasizes:

The hallmark trait of the global approach seems to be the persistent attempt to show relationships, to show that problems ordinarily treated separately are in fact connected, to show that the individual is connected into larger biosocial systems and that this has implications for responsible personal choices and to show that our best understanding of complex issues comes from the application of interdisciplinary analysis.¹⁵

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ James M. Becker, "Conceptual Issues in Global Education" (Easton, MD: National Conference on Professional Priorities: Shaping the Future of Global Education, May, 1981), pp. 3-4. (Mimeographed.)

¹⁵ Robert G. Hanvey, Possibilities for International Global Education: A Report, Institute for International Education and Global Perspectives in Education, Inc. (1979), p. 9; Conference on International Education: The Global Context--U.S. Role (Washington, D.C., 1979); Jon Rye Kinghorn, et al, A Guide to Four Essential Themes: School Improvement Through Global Education (Boulder, CO: Charles F. Kettering Foundation, NCACS, 1979).

Review of the Related Literature

The problem of definition is critical to the theoretical and empirical development of the field. Muskal indicated that it is essential that global education, as an emerging paradigm, be firmly grounded in a theoretical base which is generic to its nature in order for the field to become legitimate.¹⁶ Programmatic decisions and inservice training plans must therefore be built upon a selected definition backed by sufficient theory and research. Dewey stated:

Theory is in the end the most practical of all things, because this widening of the range of attention beyond nearby purpose and desire eventually results in the creation of wider and farther-reaching purposes and enables us to use a much wider and deeper range of conditions and means than were expressed in the observations of primitive practical purposes.¹⁷

It appears to be the nature of a developing paradigm to originate first with many authorities arguing for change in a given direction, followed on the heels by the philosophers and the program developers. The empiricists have barely begun to function within the world system paradigm. In addition, since the Supreme Court Decision of Brown vs.

¹⁶ Fred Muskal, "Historical and Programmatic Overview of Bilingual Education" (Stockton, CA: Symposium on Global/Bilingual Connections in Education, May, 1981). (Transcribed.)

¹⁷ John Dewey, The Sources of a Science of Education (New York: Liveright, 1929), p. 17.

The Board of Education in 1954, the naturally slow process of change in the educational system has been circumvented by additional court decisions and legislation. Change, in general, is often imposed from the "top" with little preparation for the individuals who are required to implement these newly conceived programs.¹⁸

The paradigm of the world system seems to be maturing in just such a manner. The report from the National Commission on the Reform of Secondary Education, a Report to the Public and the Profession, and especially the recent Perkins Report, have done much to hasten the process of implementation of global education programs, in spite of the limited theoretical and empirical development to support the rationale for these programs. However, the theoretical conceptualization of the field appears to be consistent with regard to one central construct, that of "interdependence."¹⁹ This construct has only recently been the focus of empirical

¹⁸ Muskal, Op. Cit.

¹⁹ James A. Becker, Education for a Global Society (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973); Becker (ed.), Schooling for a Global Age (New York: McGraw Hill, 1979); Lee Anderson, Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives in Education, Social Studies Development Center, 1979); Hanvey, Op. Cit.: King, et al., Op. Cit.

investigation.²⁰ In addition, there are a limited number of other studies of curriculum projects which form the basis for this study.

Related research is categorized as being either developmental or environmental. The developmental research suggests that a certain age span is appropriate for teaching awareness of and appreciation for other nations and people. The environmental research identifies influences on the student in the classroom environment, including teaching strategies which, in this case, include classroom goal structures and curriculum in the elementary social studies.

The Development of National Identity and Orientations Toward Other Nations

Piagetian theory has provided the basis for all subsequent investigation of the child's development of the concept of homeland.²¹ The study by Piaget and Weil done in 1951 found that the construct of reciprocity of thought was positively associated with the child's ability to step outside an egocentric view of the world to exhibit the development of the concept of homeland and the notion of other countries. Furthermore, this reciprocity of thought and subsequent ability to understand one's own and other coun-

²⁰ Steven M. Jongewaard, Learning the Concept of Interdependence Using Selected Curricular Materials and/or Cooperative Goal Structures (University of Minnesota: unpublished doctoral dissertation, 1981).

²¹ John Flavell, The Developmental Psychology of Jean Piaget (New York: Van Nostrand, 1963).

tries was not found to develop until the age of ten or eleven.²² It was found that children see themselves as the center of their social world until the age of five or six. The research shows that there is a definite shift from an egocentric perspective to a broader world view by the age of eight.²³ Jahoda, in an interview study of Scottish children, found that the development of the concept of nationality was positively associated with the development of a child's ability to make spatial and geographic distinctions. He found that these children had developed the notion of the "homeland" by the age of eight or nine.²⁴

There does seem to be some question as to the impact of socio/cultural factors on the development of a strong identity with the homeland. Adelson suggests that the adolescent's achievement of hypothetico-deductive reasoning that Piaget and other theorists have demonstrated in advance modes of reasoning in relation to scientific problems is not generally evidenced in the social and philosophical

²² Jean Piaget and Ann-Marie Weil, "The Development in Children of the Idea of the Homeland and of Relations with Other Countries," UNESCO International Social Science Bulletin, III (1951), pp. 561-578.

²³ Gustav Jahoda, "Development of Children's Ideas about Country and Nationality," British Journal of Educational Psychology, Part I, 23 (1963), pp. 47-60; Richard Remy, et al, International Learning and International Education in a Global Age, Bulletin #47, National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D.C., 1975).

²⁴ Ibid.

reasoning of adolescents until a much later age.²⁵ A study by Moodie in South Africa offers a possible explanation. This study confirmed the developmental nature of Piaget's original construct, but found that the original rates of achievement were not substantiated in his sample of English-speakers and Afrikaan-speakers, the two dominant white groups of the country. The Afrikaan speakers were found to be more positive toward national political symbols in a nation which is politically controlled by Afrikaaners. Moodie suggested that "children who have difficulty finding symbols of national identity are more likely to remain at a personal level for longer than those for whom a national identity is readily provided."²⁶ The Afrikaaners, however, expressed increasing negative attitudes toward out-groups in their environment (English-speakers and blacks) with increasing age than did the English-speakers.²⁷

Researchers such as Moodie, Connell, Cooper and Hess and Torney agree that young children have the capacity to

²⁵ Joseph Adelson, "Rites of Passage, How Children Learn the Principles of Community," American Educator, 6 (Summer, 1982), pp. 31.

²⁶ Meredith A. Moodie, "The Development of National Identity in White South African School Children," Journal of Social Psychology, III (1980), p. 177.

²⁷ Ibid.

develop positive feelings for their nation and its symbols.²⁸ However, the study by Torney, et al, Civic Education in Ten Countries, demonstrated that there is national variation in the strength of the sense of national identity. This survey also indicated considerable differences in patterns of interest and knowledge of other nations. The U.S. was the only country in which students exhibited substantially less interest in the discussion of international political topics than domestic politics.²⁹ Jones confirmed these findings in a 1980 study.³⁰

The development of attitudes toward other nations and other peoples thus emerges concurrently with the concept of homeland and general cognitive development. Children tend to stereotype their own and other groups because of their inability to organize their socio-political environment in a logical manner.³¹ Lambert and Klineberg

²⁸ Ibid., R. Connell, The Child's Construction of Politics (Melbourne, Australia: University of Melbourne Press, 1971); P. Cooper, "The Development of the Concept of War," Journal of Peace Research, 2 (1965) 1-7; R. D. Hess and J. Torney, The Development of Political Attitudes in Children (Chicago: Aldine, 1967).

²⁹ Torney, et al, 1975. Op. Cit.

³⁰ R. Jones, "National vs. International Learning: Political Knowledge and Interest in the USA," International Journal of Political Education, 3 (1980), 33-48.

³¹ Remey, et al, 1975. Op. Cit.

outlined the development of this stereotyping process in their study of youngsters' perceptions of differences between their own and other countries. In this study in the late 1950's, younger children noted superficial differences among people from various countries; by fourteen, children had moved to a more sophisticated comparison based on personalities or political and religious behavior. At about age ten, American children tended to be interested in foreign peoples who were both similar and dissimilar; by age fourteen, U.S. children were no longer as positive toward dissimilar foreign peoples.³²

In summary, there have been several adequate studies of children's knowledge and perceptions of other nations. What appears to be needed at this point, according to Torney-Purta in a 1982 review of the literature, are measures which are more sensitive to student perceptions, such as interviews, and evaluations assessing the impact of international education programs in the schools. She notes that in 1980, the Department of Education collected data on international projects funded from 1956 to 1977 and identified only fifteen out of some five hundred in the category, "Teaching and Learning About Other Countries," that had

³² Wallace E. Lambert and Otto Klineberg, Children's Views of Foreign Peoples: A Cross National Study (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967).

any evaluation of learning effectiveness. Torney-Purta also concludes that based on the existing research findings, the years between seven or eight and eleven or twelve may be a critical period in which to teach children about other people and nations. It is during this period that the child undergoes a continuous process of construction, exploration, and testing of theories with regard to society and social interactions, and is most open to and accepting of differences.³³ Piaget and Weil conclude:

...the child's discovery of his homeland and understanding of other countries is a process of transition from egocentricity to reciprocity... Accordingly, the main problem is not to determine what must or must not be inculcated in the child; it is to discover how to develop reciprocity in thought and action.³⁴

It seems appropriate then to endeavor to discover as much as possible about this process of development.

Related Environmental Research

There are in the schools existing environmental factors which affect student learning in the area of global education. In a review of the literature entitled, "Nationalistic vs. Global Education: An Examination of National Bias

³³ J. Torney-Purta, "Research and Evaluation in Global Education: The State of the Art and Priorities for the Future" (paper presented at the National Conference on Professional Priorities: Shaping the Future of Global Education. Easton, MD, May, 1982).

³⁴ Piaget and Weil, Op. Cit., p. 578.

in the Schools and Its Implications for a Global Society," Nelson concluded that schooling all over the world promotes patriotism either directly or indirectly. Furthermore, in the process of fostering nationalism, other nations and other peoples to varying degrees become the "enemy." Thus, patriotism becomes linked with chauvinism to become a major obstacle to the formation of a global perspective. A sense of global interdependence, or a global perspective, is perceived to be incompatible with a sense of national identity and patriotism.³⁵

Nelson also examined state curriculum guides from California, Nebraska, New York, Florida and Hawaii. He concluded from a content analysis that these guides supported this linkage of patriotism and chauvinism.³⁶ In another literature review, Mistakos concurs with Nelson that the United States is seen as the best country in the world, often at the expense of other nations.³⁷ A study conducted

³⁵ Jack Nelson, "Nationalistic vs. Global Education: An Examination of National Bias in the Schools and Its Implications for a Global Society," Theory and Research in Social Education, 4 (August, 1976).

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Charles Mistakos, An Examination of the Effect of the Family of Man Social Studies Program on Third Grade Children's Views of Foreign Peoples (Boston University; School of Education: unpublished doctoral dissertation, 1976).

by Torney illustrates this conclusion. Torney interviewed U.S. children in 1968 in which general questions were asked about differences between the U.S. and other nations. Asian countries, especially Vietnam, were indicated as being different from the U.S. four times more than non-Asian countries. The researcher speculated that student responses were strongly influenced by knowledge of the Vietnam war. In this same interview study, students often negatively referred to the differences based on language use. They viewed foreign peoples' use of languages other than English as not being right or normal.³⁸

Curriculum-Based Studies

There is concern among a number of social scientists and educators that superficial treatment of an intercultural dimension in the curriculum may actually enhance negative attitudes or anti-global perspectives.³⁹ Mistakos carried

³⁸ J. Torney, "Research on the Development of International Orientations During Childhood and Adolescence (paper presented at the American Political Science Association, 1969).

³⁹ Barry K. Beyer and Perry E. Hicks, "Images of Africa," Journal of Negro Education, 39 (1970), pp. 155-170; Judith V. Torney and Donald N. Morris, Global Dimensions in U.S. Education: The Elementary School (New York: Center for Global Perspectives, 1972); Paul Bohannon, et al, A Preliminary Review of the Intercultural Dimension in International/Intercultural Education, Grades K-14 (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium 1973).

out a research project to determine whether or not a carefully designed social studies program could have a positive effect on primary grade children's perspective of foreign peoples. The Family of Man social studies program was selected as one which has a strong global education and cross-cultural dimension and which focuses on human diversity within the context of cultural universals.

In this large, nationally-sampled study, it was found that this type of program can have a significant impact on children's attitudes toward and knowledge about foreign peoples. The children in the experimental group also displayed a better understanding and a more comprehensive view of themselves, in addition to others, and of the United States. Another conclusion by Mistakos was that social studies curricula which have organized sequential materials based on well-defined objectives achieve better results than those which do not have these features.⁴⁰ An important outcome of this research was the validation that effective assessment instruments can be developed to measure the young child's perspective of foreign nations and peoples. This could advance efforts to assess other innovative programs.

Mistakos carried out a later study for the National Council of Elementary School Principals. This project

⁴⁰ Mistakos, Op. Cit., 1976.

involved eighteen teachers in six elementary schools who agreed to participate in a series of teacher training workshops on global education and to incorporate a strong global education approach in their social studies classes for a year. Mistakos' general conclusions were similar to those for his earlier study: that a strong global education dimension in a social studies program can have a positive effect on the way children view other nations and people. He also found that the teacher training sessions on global education had a significant impact on participants' teaching behavior.⁴¹

An interesting field experiment by Jongewaard tends to support the contention that global education programs can make a difference. He attempted to actualize the concept of interdependence, a concept central to global education, as an instructional strategy in sixth grade social studies classes, in addition to teaching about this concept. A sequence of learning materials was selected by Jongewaard to engage students in learning about the concept of interdependence. These materials were chosen based on criteria to eliminate stereotypes and emphasize depth of understanding.⁴² In addition, students were organized for learn-

⁴¹ Charles Mistakos, "National Association of Elementary School Principals Global Education Project: Evaluation Report" (Andover, MA: Andover Public Schools, Monograph, 1979).

⁴² Jongewaard, Op. Cit.

ing according to the classroom goal structures of individualistic and cooperative behavior.⁴³ The third goal structure, competition, was not a variable in this study. In the individualistic approach, each student works toward the achievement of the learning goal independently of the other students; in the cooperative model, students can only achieve the goal if others in their group also achieve the goal. Thus, a condition of mutual dependence, or interdependence, exists. The researcher concluded that cooperative goal structures are an effective teaching strategy for global education activities and that cooperative, interdependent learning experiences enhance the students' understanding of the concept itself. He furthermore determined that a non-textbook, activity-oriented series of coordinated lessons was an effective teaching strategy.⁴⁴

The results of teacher designed and conducted research projects by Williams in Great Britain and Elley in New

⁴³ M. Deutch, "Cooperation and Trust: Some Theoretical Notes," in M. Jones (ed.), Nebraska Symposium on Motivation (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1962), pp. 275-320; D.W. Johnson and R.T. Johnson, Learning Together and Alone: Cooperation, Competition and Individualization (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1975).

⁴⁴ Jongewaard, Op. Cit.

Zealand suggested that schools must make a conscious effort to foster effective international/global education programs and that improved attitudes do not necessarily result from increased knowledge. These studies both used non-traditional methods and content while focusing on traditional topics.⁴⁵

A study by Kehoe on human rights education compared two approaches in teaching about the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In the first approach, teachers led student discussion on the topic. In the second method, students worked in small groups at learning stations around the room where, in addition to group discussion, they read newspaper stories and wrote reactions to these stories on the topic. A post-test showed superior results for this group over the discussion only group.⁴⁶

One element that may be common to all these studies is the use of a non-traditional curriculum. Those programs

⁴⁵ H.M. Williams, "Changes in Pupils' Attitudes Toward West African Negroes Following the Use of Two Different Teaching Methods," British Journal of Educational Psychology, 31 (1962), 292-96; W.B. Elley, "Attitude Change and Education for Understanding," Sociology of Education, 37 (1964) 318-25.

⁴⁶ J. Kehoe, "An Examination of Alternative Approaches to Teaching the Universal Declaration of Human Rights," International Journal of Political Education, 3 (1980), 193-204.

which are based on experiential learning seem to promote more effective learning of content. There is a growing body of literature which supports the importance of active learning experiences in teaching abstract concepts instead of lectures, drills and practice.⁴⁷ According to Piaget, the essence of knowledge is derived from an individual's interaction with physical objects through the process of experience.⁴⁸ This element of any experimental curriculum project needs to be identified and evaluated.

Research on Goal Structure

The research on cooperative learning and goal structures by definition form a natural link with the concept of interdependence. As previously described, Deutsch and Johnson and Johnson identified and described three major categories of goal structures: individualistic, competi-

⁴⁷ Beverly R. Phillips, et al, "Piagetian Theory: Implications for Teaching and Curriculum in the Junior High School" (Stockton, CA: The Center for the Development of Economics Education, University of the Pacific, 1980, unpublished manuscript); Doni Kwolek Kobus, "Stockton and the World--Developing a Community-Based Global Education Approach (paper presented at the National Conference on Professional Priorities: Shaping the Future of Global Education, Easton, MD, May, 1982).

⁴⁸ Jean Piaget, "Development and Learning," Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 2 (1964), 176-186.

tive, and cooperative.⁴⁹ In their discussion of the cognitive prerequisites for working cooperatively in groups, Johnson and Johnson identify the need to be able to recognize that outcomes in a given situation are a result of "mutual causation." One must perceive relationships between decisions, actions and resulting consequences.⁵⁰ Madsen describes this mutual causation awareness as "interdependency" and, based on his research, concludes that this trait develops after age five but before age ten.⁵¹ The appropriate use of classroom goal structures appears to be a critical environmental factor leading to successful learning.⁵² Cooperatively structured learning leads to greater mastery, retention, and transfer of concepts, rules and principles, according to Johnson and Johnson.⁵³ Reviews

⁴⁹ Deutsch, Op. Cit.; Johnson and Johnson, Op. Cit.

⁵⁰ Johnson and Johnson, Ibid.

⁵¹ L. L. Nelson and S. Kagan, "Competition: The Star Spangled Scramble," Psychology Today, 6 (September 1972).

⁵² D. W. Johnson and R. T. Johnson, "Cooperative Learning: The Power of Positive Goal Interdependence" (University of Minnesota, 1978, monograph).

⁵³ D. W. Johnson, et al, "The Effects of Cooperative, Competitive, and Individualistic Goal Structures on Achievement: A Meta-Analysis," Psychological Bulletin (1981).

of the literature on cooperative learning by Sharan and Slavin support these findings. In addition, these reviews conclude that cooperative learning strategies significantly improve intergroup relations in ethnically mixed classrooms.⁵⁴

It is significant to this study that greater cognitive and emotional perspective taking is associated with cooperative learning than with either individualistic or competitive goal structures.⁵⁵ Social perspective taking is defined by Johnson and Johnson as the ability to understand how a situation appears to another person and how that person is reacting cognitively and emotionally to the situation.⁵⁶ Furthermore, an actualized definition of interdependence is based on a person's ability to see another's point of view.

⁵⁴ Shlomo Sharan, "Cooperative Learning in Small Groups: Recent Methods and Effects on Achievement, Attitudes, and Ethnic Relations," Review of Educational Research, 50 (1980), 241-271; Robert E. Slavin, "Cooperative Learning," Review of Educational Research, 50 (1980), 315-342.

⁵⁵ D. Bridgeman, "Cooperative, Interdependent Learning and Its Enhancement of Role-Taking in Fifth Grade Students," paper presented at the American Psychological Association Convention (San Francisco, August, 1977); D.W. Johnson, et al, "The Effects of Cooperative Versus Individualized Instruction on Student Prosocial Behavior, Attitudes Toward Learning, and Achievement," Journal of Education Psychology, 68 (1976), 446-452.

⁵⁶ D. W. Johnson and R. T. Johnson, "Cooperative Learning: The Power of Positive Goal Interdependence," Monograph, University of Minnesota (1978).

In conclusion, the literature identifies a positive relationship between concept attainment and cooperative goal structures. In addition, greater perspective-taking ability has been shown to occur as a result of students engaging in cooperative group learning. These two relationships are central to this review of the literature and the proposed study.

We have thus far examined what students know and do not know about the world. We have also investigated the developmental aspect of attitudes toward foreign peoples and the development of the sense of community/nationalism and internationalism. Given the rationales for the need of our citizens to develop a global perspective, a larger question emerges as to the proper role of the school and curriculum in this process of political socialization.

Related Findings from Political Socialization Literature

Ehman, in a 1980 review of the literature, concludes that schooling is important in transmitting knowledge about the political system and that the schooling effect increases from elementary to high school. However, it appears to be less important than the family and the media in shaping political attitudes and behavior. There tends to be an exception with regard to this last influence for members of low social status groups whose attitudes appear to be

more influenced by school curriculum than members of higher status groups. He concludes that systematic and carefully designed curriculum programs can improve political knowledge at both the elementary and secondary level. In addition, Ehman found that the credibility of the teacher appears to be a key attribute in determining teacher influence on political attitudes of students.

Classroom climate, as influenced by the leadership of the teacher, has been shown to be strongly linked to the development of student attitudes. A climate of openness and acceptance of expression of diverse opinions and one where students have rights and power to influence classroom procedures has been shown to be linked positively and consistently with the development of positive political attitudes. Likewise, student participation in school government and extra-curricular activities is positively related to these attitudes. The research suggests that it is the latent curriculum of how students are taught that influences attitudes, and therefore effective citizenship, rather than the manifest curriculum which affects knowledge but not political participation.⁵⁷

⁵⁷ Lee H. Ehman, "The American School in the Political Socialization Process," Review of Educational Research, 50 (Spring, 1980), pp. 99-119.

Ehman concludes that field experimental research must include:

1. an investigation of specific curriculum materials and approaches as to their influence on political attitudes as well as knowledge;
2. an investigation of the teacher credibility factor and
3. an investigation of the dimensions of classroom climate.⁵⁸

These findings have been confirmed by the results of the IEA cross-national survey published by Torney, Oppenheim and Faran in 1975.⁵⁹ It was found in nearly all nine countries that scores on scales measuring democratic values and interest in political participation were highest among students whose classes consisted, not of printed drills and rote learning, but of many opportunities for student centered discussion in an atmosphere of acceptance of and respect for diverse opinions. A study by Bellak⁶⁰ similarly supported these findings, and in addition found that student test performance on knowledge of international economic problems was superior in classes where teachers spent a smaller proportion of time lecturing.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ Torney, et al, Op. Cit.

⁶⁰ A. Bellak, The Language of the Classroom (New York: Teachers College, 1966).

It appears, then, that the success of innovative curriculum which will promote knowledge of and positive attitudes toward global issues and a global perspective is dependent upon classroom climate, teacher credibility, and the type of teacher-student interaction.

Summary

In conclusion, this review has presented a brief rationale for and a perspective of the conceptualization of the field of global education. It was noted that in spite of the potential differences in orientations of international education, global education, and education for a global perspective, the common element of the concept of interdependence appears to be established throughout the field. The literature reveals that there is a great need to improve U.S. students' perspective of and knowledge about other peoples, nations, and the world as an interdependent system. Ignorance and chauvinism are common among college students and education majors appear to be particularly unprepared to meet the challenge of implementing a global perspective in their future careers.

The literature also reveals the developmental nature of learning/teaching a sense of community and nationality, and of awareness and knowledge of other peoples and nations.

It has been established that there is an age period from seven or eight to eleven or twelve during which children are particularly open to learning about others. Furthermore, although limited in number, evaluations of programs and innovative curricula suggest that the most successful way to teach about others is through an analysis of cultural and national differences within the context of universal characteristics and needs of humankind. This period of early to middle childhood appears to be a critical one for developing patriotism without chauvinism through an organized, sequential programmatic effort which engages the student in experiential learning.

However, the literature on political socialization identifies the many environmental factors which effect attempts to change attitudes through curriculum. Parents and the media may have a greater influence on the development of attitudes toward others than the school, as it currently functions. Classroom climate, teacher credibility, and teaching strategies appear to be important differentiating factors in the schooling process which impact on the development of these attitudes.

Cooperative learning/teaching strategies show firm evidence of success in teaching content. There is some indication that a cooperative goal structure is superior to an independent goal structure in teaching both the

technical and ideological nature of the concept central to global education, interdependence.

The literature points out the critical need to properly assess the impact of global education programs which have been implemented. In addition, researchers must continue to develop more sophisticated methods of evaluation, including the interview. It seems to be particularly important to focus on programs implemented for students within the critical developmental period and to carefully select teaching strategies which have been shown to be most successful.

Finally, there appears to be a sufficient rationale for global education programs and growing evidence that these programs can make a difference. Research must continue to probe these areas for further varification of these findings.

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